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LEADERSHIP PARTICIPATION AND STYLE IN THE  
EXTENSION HOMEMAKER STUDY GROUP PROGRAM

BY

SHIRLEY JEAN ANDERSON

A thesis submitted  
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the  
degree of Master of Science, Major in  
Home Economics, South Dakota

1984

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LEADERSHIP PARTICIPATION AND STYLE IN THE  
EXTENSION HOMEMAKER STUDY GROUP PROGRAM

This thesis is approved as a creditable and independent investigation by a candidate for the degree, Master of Science, and is acceptable for meeting the thesis requirements for this degree. Acceptance of this thesis does not imply that the conclusions reached by the candidate are necessarily the conclusions by the major department.

Major and Thesis Advisor

Date

Dean, College of Home Economics

Date

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LEADERSHIP PARTICIPATION AND STYLE IN THE  
EXTENSION HOMEMAKER STUDY GROUP PROGRAM

Abstract

SHIRLEY JEAN ANDERSON

Under the supervision of Professor Edna Page Anderson

The purpose of this study was to investigate the involvement of Lyon County Minnesota Homemaker Study Group members in Extension leadership development activities in relation to the leadership style utilized by the members. Data was obtained through the use of a three-part questionnaire from 250 women who participated in the Extension Homemaker Study Group Program in Lyon County, Minnesota in January, 1983. Relationships among demographic data, leadership participation, and leadership style were investigated.

Several significant relationships were found between selected demographic data and level of member participation as well as between selected demographic data and leadership style. The highest participation was found among those who had been members six to ten years and were thirty-one to fifty years old. Democratic-cooperative was identified as the dominant style of leadership in this study. Those who had been a member six to ten years and were thirty-one to fifty years old identified this style of leadership most often.

The positive relationship between member participation in leadership development activities and leadership style was significant.

As participation increased, so did the utilization of the democratic-cooperative style of leadership. The highest utilization of the democratic-cooperative style was in the areas of home/family life and school/educational pursuits. The lowest was in the area of work/vocational pursuits.

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## CHAPTER I

### Introduction

The Smith-Lever Act of 1914 created the Cooperative Extension Service. The intent of the Smith-Lever Act was to provide practical information to people in their local environment or county (USDA-NASULGC, 1968). This new agency, a third branch of the land grant university system, was a unique American innovation in education because it placed in counties of every state an Extension educator who would provide results of current research and information to local residents. According to the Smith-Lever Act, Extension programs were to relate primarily to Agriculture, Horticulture, Home Economics/Family Living, 4-H and Youth Development, and Community Resource Development.

Leadership development is a primary objective of the Extension educational process. The assumption is that programs in each area will make widespread use of human resources to fill leadership and other roles. Extension programs are open to everyone. Through participation in Extension, lay people have the opportunity to expand their knowledge base in various subject matter areas. At the same time, there is opportunity for growth in leadership as participants return to their respective communities to disseminate information to others and work towards positive growth and development in their environments.

### Significance of the Problem

Two basic premises that have guided Extension in its efforts to develop lay leadership are that Extension should:

1) provide individual families and communities satisfying and self-actualizing growth opportunities, and

2) involve lay leadership that evolves from its educational processes for its own maintenance, stability, growth, and development. Thus Extension's leadership development is both a means and an end (Bishop and Carter, 1976). "As a means, Extension identifies, recruits, trains, and supervises adults and youth to staff the many voluntary positions created in its planning, teaching, and evaluating processes. As an end, Extension uses the same educational processes to provide opportunities for many individuals to have leadership experience and training." (Bishop and Carter 1976:105). Leadership development is encouraged through active participation in programs designed to analyze situations, define problems, build a program and evaluate its results. In Extension, a leader is one who is actively involved for purposes of helping oneself or others. In this research, the focus will be on the leadership development process for members of the Extension Homemaker Study Group Program in the area of Home Economics/Family Living.

Home Economics/Family Living Programs are one type of Extension education through which information and resources of the land grant university are extended to individuals and families. Through a variety of experiences, assistance is given in identifying needs and improving the quality of family life in homes and communities. Programs are designed to increase the ability of individuals to assume leadership roles.

One experience in which these objectives are accomplished is through the Homemaker Study Group Program. Membership in this type of

group offers opportunities to develop skills in leadership that may be applied in various community group settings. In 1980, there were approximately 538,000 adults in the United States participating in the Extension Homemaker Study Group Program. This number included 42,000 from Minnesota (Goering, 1984). In Lyon County, Minnesota, there were 39 Extension Homemaker Study Groups involving 500 members.

An Extension Homemaker Study Group, open to any adult, is a group of people who meet regularly in an informal neighborhood setting to learn current information relating to home, family, and community living. Members get to know each other, share ideas and experiences, and develop leadership skills. Leadership skills are learned and reinforced in a variety of ways. Leadership training is integrated into such programs as subject matter sessions in which group representatives become program leaders within their respective group; service within the local group as an officer, committee member, or special program coordinator; and, participation in leadership development programs sponsored by the Extension Service. These and other leadership development opportunities provide training in the democratic style of leadership. This style is characterized by a "parliamentary procedure" decision-making process and is marked by an individual playing the dual role of leader and group member (Cassel and Stancik, 1982). Leaders using the democratic style will share their responsibilities with group members by involving them in the planning and execution of tasks (Hersey and Blanchard, 1969).

The Cooperative Extension Service in each state is responsible

to the Federal Extension Service for their educational charge and must report annually on program direction in relation to meeting clientele needs. Continued federal and state support is based on how well these needs are being met.

### Statement of the Problem

Leadership development is a primary objective of the programs provided by the Cooperative Extension Service. Programs are presented within the dimensions of democratic leadership which is identified as a positive, growth-producing style of leadership. Within the Extension Homemaker Study Group Program, leadership skills can be learned and applied by participating in a variety of learning and working experiences that provide formal and informal types of leadership training.

The purpose of this study was to investigate the involvement of Lyon County, Minnesota Homemaker Study Group members in Extension leadership development activities in relation to the leadership style the members utilized.

Specific questions to be addressed were: 1) How are Extension Homemaker Study Group members involved in leadership activities?

2) Does Extension Homemaker Study Group member involvement in leadership activities relate to particular demographic characteristics?

3) Is there a particular style of leadership which characterizes the Extension Homemaker Study Group member? If so, what is it?

4) Does Extension Homemaker Study Group member leadership style relate to particular demographic characteristics?

5) Does Extension Homemaker Study Group member leadership style relate to complexity of program involvement?

6) Does leadership style vary with life activity areas for the Extension Homemaker Study Group member? (For example, is leadership style the same in play and avocational pursuits as it is in work and vocational pursuits?)

The following null hypotheses were developed for testing:

1) There is no significant relationship between selected demographic characteristics of Extension Homemaker Study Group Members and their participation in Extension leadership training programs.

2) There is no significant relationship between selected demographic characteristics of Extension Homemaker Study Group Members and their leadership style.

3) There is no significant relationship between Extension Homemaker Study Group Members' participation in Extension leadership training programs and their leadership style.

4) There is no significant difference in the leadership style of Extension Homemaker Study Group Members in different life activity areas.

### Definitions

The following definitions will apply throughout this paper:

Autocratic-Aggressive Leadership. An ego-centered decision mode where the leader alone makes action decisions;

group objectives and action plans are released parts at a time to the individual members for their action as required. (Cassel and Stancik, 1982).

Autocratic-Submissive Leadership. A decision mode centered on a resource person, expert, or committee; the leader emphasizes the use of advisors and resource persons. (Cassel and Stancik, 1982).

Cooperative Extension Service. An agency created by the Smith Lever Act of 1914 to provide research based information from the United States Department of Agriculture (USDA) and the land grant university in a variety of ways to residents in each county of each state. (USDA-NASULGC, 1968).

Democratic Cooperative Leadership. A decision mode centered on parliamentary procedure. The main concept of the leader is to emphasize the will of the group or the individual involved; the leader retains the dual role of leader and group member. (Cassel and Stancik, 1982).

Extension Educator. A person with at least a bachelors degree who works through a county Extension Office disseminating research and information to local residents.

Home Council. A decision-making group composed of one representative from each homemaker study group within a county.

Home Economics/Family Living Program. One area of the Cooperative Extension Service which provides basic knowledge and experiences to family members enhancing the quality of

their lives in consumer education, housing, individual and family development, nutrition, and community leadership and development.

Homemaker Study Group. A number of people who meet regularly in an informal neighborhood setting to learn current information relating to home, family and community living.

Laissez-Faire Leadership. A decision mode centered on individual and independent group members; the leader exercises a minimum influence on the others but is always available to group members in the role of an advisor. (Cassel and Stancik, 1982).

Leadership. The ability of one to influence others in the achievement of group goals.

Leadership Development. Programming which aids one's growth and ability to become a leader.

Leadership Training Program. A learning experience designed to accustom one to a mode of leader behavior.

Volunteer. Someone who gives service to an organization of his or her own free will.



## CHAPTER II

### Review of Literature

Leadership is a topic discussed in both popular and professional literature. Fiedler (1967) describes the phenomena of leadership as a highly complex process which involves data of complex statistical interaction. Through the years, the complexity of leadership has become apparent as different components have been studied. In this review of literature, basic definitions and theories of leadership will be examined. Leadership styles and the effects of leadership training, both central concepts in this research, will also be considered. Democratic leadership, the preferred style in the Cooperative Extension Service, will be given particular emphasis.

#### Definition

In general terms, leadership is defined as the position or guidance of one who has the ability to lead others. Terms used synonymously with leadership include directorship, mastership, and supremacy. Stogdill (1974, p. 7-16) makes a classification of several leadership definitions. These include:

- Leadership as a focus of group process.
- Leadership as personality and its effects.
- Leadership as the art of including compliance.
- Leadership as the exercise of influence.
- Leadership as an act or behavior.
- Leadership as a form of persuasion.

- Leadership as a power relation.
- Leadership as an instrument of goal achievement.
- Leadership as an effect of interaction.
- Leadership as the initiation of structure.

The great variety in the classification attests to the fact that there is lack of agreement on the meaning of the concept. There is, though, some slight progression of thought in the varying definitions. Stogdill explains that early writers tended to identify leadership as a focus of group process and movement. Later ones identified leadership as the art of inducing compliance or conceived the concept in terms of power differentials, role differentiation, and/or the initiation of structure. Even though Stogdill (1974) cites this tendency, he concludes that parallel tabulation of dates would indicate simultaneous trends in thought.

Some investigators (Koontz and O'Donnell, 1955; Tannenbaum, Weschler, and Massarek, 1961; and Hollander, 1978) include influence and the achievement of goals as key terms in their definitions of leadership. Hollander (1978) explains influence as a two-way relationship, thus implying that leadership is not just the job of the leader but of others in the group as well. Further review of the definition of leadership as an influence often includes the term management. Hersey and Blanchard (1969) believe the organization to be the key difference between leadership and management. Leadership is influence and management is a special kind of leadership in which goals of the organization are paramount.

In this research, the definition of leadership as one's ability to influence others in the achievement of group goals will be utilized. The definition of leadership as an influence on others is fitting for this study of leadership within the Extension Homemaker Study Group. Within this organization, there are many potential leaders as well as many opportunities in which to exercise influence upon others.

### Theory

The earliest literature on leadership focused on two main areas - the identification of different types of leadership relative to the functional demands of society and leadership ability which was thought to be identifiable by examining qualities of a leader. Stogdill (1974) differentiates early leadership theorists from more recent ones in two ways:

- 1) Early theorists failed to consider the interaction between individual and situational variables. Murphy (1941) was early in detecting this same factor as a fault of early leadership studies, concluding that emphasis should be on the individual as a factor in the situation rather than the individual alone.

- 2) Early theorists tended to develop more comprehensive theories than their more recent counterparts.

One of the oldest theories of leadership is the "Great Man" theory in which leadership abilities are viewed as inborn qualities. Researchers identified these "Great Man" leaders as those who were naturally followed by others. In 1941, T. Carlyle's essay (Stogdill, 1974) on heroes tended to reinforce the concept of the leader as a

person endowed with unique qualities that captured the imagination of the masses. Other theorists (Borgotta, Bales, and Couch, 1954; Jennings, 1960) concluded that inherent leadership qualities could be found among the ruling classes.

These theories directed attention to the trait approach to leadership in which various physical, intellectual, and personality characteristics of leaders were identified. Stogdill (1948:66) lists seven common leadership traits as physical and constitutional factors, intelligence, self-confidence, sociability, will, dominance, and surgency. After study, he concluded that "a person does not become a leader by virtue of the possession of some combination of traits, but the pattern of personal characteristics of the leader must bear some relevant relationship to the characteristics, activities, and goals of the followers". Gibb (1947:284) reiterates that thinking in concluding that "leadership is not a quality which a person possesses; it is an interactional function of the personality and of the social situation". Hersey and Blanchard (1969) posit that in the trait approach to leadership, there is an underlying question of the value of training individuals to assume leadership roles. There is then the implication that if one could discover how to identify and measure these leadership qualities, leaders could be screened from non-leaders, and leadership training would be helpful only to those with inherent leadership traits.

Gouldner (1950) discusses the inadequacy of the trait theory of leadership. He points out that traits are seldom listed in any order

of importance and that the same trait could function differently in various situations. Jennings (Hersey and Blanchard 1969:83) felt the trait theory to be of little worth, saying that "fifty years of study have failed to produce one personality trait or set of qualities that can be used to discriminate leaders from nonleaders". Hersey and Blanchard (1969) concur and conclude that leadership is a dynamic process which will vary from situation to situation.

Situational leadership, in contrast to a trait leadership, is a combination of circumstances at a given time which will affect the influence that one person has over another. Two early movements influencing the development of situational leadership theory were scientific management and human relations. Bennes (1961) calls the scientific management and human relations movements the "two major pillars" upon which current leadership theory stands.

Under the scientific management or classical approach, the leader enforces performance criteria to meet organizational goals or needs of the organization. Goals or needs of the individual are not the basic consideration. Scientific management was exemplified in the early 1900's by Frederick Winslow Taylor (1911). Taylor felt that the best way to increase output was to improve techniques used by workers. He has been interpreted as one who separated human emotions from management and considered people as instruments who could be manipulated by their leaders.

Unlike the scientific management approach, the human relations approach first considers the goals and needs of the individual and not

those of the organization. A human relations leader would function as a facilitator of goal attainment among followers and at the same time provide for their personal growth and development. A proponent of the human relations approach, Elton Mayo, (1945) claimed that real power within a given organization was the interpersonal relationships that developed among its members. He felt that the organization should be developed around the workers by taking into high consideration the attitudes and feelings of involved human beings.

McGregor (1960) developed a human relations leadership theory that he called Theory X - Theory Y. Theory X assumes that most people prefer to be directed, are not interested in assuming responsibility, and want safety above all. With this theory, leaders would most likely attempt to structure, control, and closely supervise their followers. Theory Y assumes that people are not by nature lazy and unreliable, but that they can be self-directed and creative at work if properly motivated. Advocates of this theory would likely portray leaders as supportive and facilitative of their followers, but this may not always be the case. McGregor also points out that although most people have the potential to be mature and self motivated, Theory Y leaders may find it necessary to be directive and controlling with some people in the short run until they really become Theory Y people.

McGregor (1960) has also recast his Theory X - Theory Y leadership philosophy. His new approach involves recognition, interdependence, belief, and integration: recognition of authority as a central indispensable means of managerial control; interdependence or

collaboration between superiors and subordinates; the belief that subordinates are capable of learning how to exercise effective self-control; and, the integration of individual differences and organizational needs.

Argyris (1964) further emphasizes the important role of integration. He points out that incongruence between the individual and the organization can be the foundation for increasing effectiveness of both. Incongruence can allow for integration and for the constant exchange of ideas resulting in decisions which will benefit the individual and the organization. Both individual and organization can keep moving in a positive, growth producing direction.

x Basic principles of both scientific management and human relations are found in leadership theories which focus on situational factors. Situational leadership theory maintains that certain traits and capacities are crucial for effective leadership in various situations. According to Hersey and Blanchard (1969:151), "there is no one best way to influence people. The leadership style a person should use with individuals or groups depends on the maturity level of the people the leader is attempting to influence". Their theory portrays a relationship between task-relevant maturity and the appropriate leadership style to use as followers move from immaturity to maturity. Maturity levels range from "telling" to "selling" to "participating" to "delegating" and are defined as follows:

Telling. Followers exhibit low maturity and are unable and unwilling to take responsibility to do something usually

because of insecurity.

Selling. Followers exhibit low to moderate maturity and are unable but willing to take responsibility to do something.

They are confident but lack skills at the time.

Participating. Followers exhibit moderate to high maturity and are able but unwilling to take on responsibility usually due to a lack of confidence or insecurity.

Delegating. Followers exhibit high maturity and are able, willing, and confident to take responsibility.

The leader behavior indicated for each of these maturity levels would be high task/low relationship for "telling", high task/high relationship for "selling", high relationship/low task for "participating", and low relationship/low task for "delegating". High levels of task orientation in the leadership process are necessary with the low and low to moderately mature follower, and high levels of relationship are necessary with the low to moderate and moderate to high mature follower according to this theory. The key is to assess follower maturity level and then behave as the results prescribe. The leader considers first the follower - a basic principle of the human relations movement. Scientific management principles are applied as one works through this model to task application. Both movements have influenced this model of situational leadership.

There are other theories and models which can be placed within the situational leadership framework. Bennes (1961:28) makes reference to a new group of theorists called revisionists who attempt "to



reconcile and integrate classical and modern organizational theory". The revisionists are concerned with external, economic factors but do not exclude human elements. He credits McMurray (1958) with a benevolent autocracy theory. In this theory, the major postulate is that rigid structure and control gets results because a strong autocrat evokes binding loyalty, respect, and distant worship. Fathers are often considered prototypes of this type of leadership since the home does offer a situation of people where a combination of human relations and scientific management principles can be utilized.

Lippitt (1969) identifies the revisionist theory of leadership as the functions approach in situational analysis. He defines functional leadership as the sharing of responsibilities within a group setting. According to Lippitt, groups which distribute leadership responsibilities achieve greater productivity and morale. These responsibilities are group, task, and self-centered functions which are required for groups to make a decision, reach a conclusion, or solve a conflict. He calls a group "mature" when members assume responsibility for these roles which are necessary for effective functioning. Even though another type of leadership is identified with this theory, it still reflects the human relations principles as group members work together in a given situation.

Another theory that can be placed in Bennes (1961) revisionists group is that of dimensional leadership. Dimensional leadership is designed to help one discover and recognize effective and ineffective behavior. When this skill is acquired, a decision can be made to

maintain or make a change in behavior. Dimensional leadership emphasizes that "the only person over whom we have control is ourselves" (Troyer, 1977:13). This theory is related to situational leadership in that it allows an individual to assess behaviors in a variety of situations and then choose the best alternative. The person is considered first and foremost.

Thomas J. Sergiovanni (1982) adds a somewhat new direction to leadership theory with his 10-P Model of Leadership (1982:331). The model is based on his premise that past leadership theory and research has emphasized too much what leaders actually do and how they behave and not enough the more symbolic aspect of leadership or the meanings they communicate to others. Keeping in mind the focus of situational leadership on behavior of leaders in various situations, Sergiovanni feels there has been too much emphasis on tactics and not enough on strategy that would emphasize quality. An abbreviated version of his model is as follows:

#### Tactical Requirements

Leadership skills

Prerequisites - leadership skills needed to develop and maintain basic leadership competence.

#### Strategic Requirements

Leadership antecedents

Perspective - ability of the leader to be able to differentiate between the tactical and strategic and to understand how they are related.

Principles - what the leader stands for.

Platform - the articulation of ones' principles into an operational framework.

	Politics - obtaining voluntary cooperation, support, and good will from others to get things done.
Leadership meanings	Purposing - means by which all human resources are brought together into a common cause.
	Planning - the articulation of purpose into concrete and long-term operational programs.
	Persisting - the attention leaders give to important principles, issues, goals, and outcomes.
	Peopling - the recognition that little can be done without the good wishes of others.
Leadership as cultural expression	Patriotism - commitment to the purpose, goals, and work of an organization.

Sergiovanni suggests that this model goes beyond mere competence and satisfactory performance toward the excellence which results from following its ten principles. He concludes that the principles are offered as a new and more integrated way to view the quality requirements of leadership, but that they are as old as the organized thinking of the human relations theorists.

### Leadership Style

Many theories and models can be found in leadership literature which include selected elements of those previously discussed.

Consideration of another dimension of leadership, leadership style, is a major component affecting most models or theories.

Leadership style is the manner or mode in which one influences

others in the achievement of group goals. Researchers have used a variety of terms to identify leadership styles. Hersey and Blanchard (1969) use the terms telling, selling, participating, and delegating to classify their style levels which they contend depend on maturity level of the individual. Hersey and Blanchard (1969) also point out that leaders will usually have a primary and a secondary leadership style. The primary style of a leader is identified as the most frequent action that one will take in order to execute influence over others. The behavior that one would use less frequently is the secondary style. Hersey and Blanchard believe that a leader would always have a primary style but not necessarily a secondary style.

Cassel (1982) identifies four modes or styles as laissez-faire, democratic-cooperative, autocratic-submissive, and autocratic-aggressive. In 1933, Kurt Lewin (cited by Cassel, 1953) evaluated the use of just three styles--autocratic, democratic, and laissez-faire. In Lewin's study, the democratic style was found to result in the most efficient individuals, with autocratic running second, and laissez-faire last. The study involved the evaluation of these three styles of leadership used with four groups of matched nine year old males. From his findings, he concludes that the individuals who worked with the democratic leader were the happiest and most content. The autocratic group considered their work drudgery, and the laissez-faire group reported the complete absence of organized control.

Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1973) point out that concern for task (scientific management) tends to be representative of authoritarian

leaders while concern for relationships (human relations) tends to be representative of democratic leaders. Authoritarian leaders would tell their followers what to do and how to do it while democratic leaders would share their responsibilities with followers by involving them in the planning and execution of the task.

Gifford (1959) defines autocratic leaders as those who encourage members to be dependent on the leader rather than taking more independent action. Laissez-faire leaders are identified as those who do not really lead at all and may have an unsatisfied group because no one understands their duties or responsibilities. Cassel (1953) explains how the implementation of democratic leadership principles have been successful in training WPA leaders, the United States Armed Forces, and a variety of personnel in educational institutions. As a result of this training, criteria for democratic leadership have been formulated:

- 1) Democratic leadership acts as a servant of the people.
- 2) Democratic leadership includes provisions that allow for a change in leadership.
- 3) Democratic leadership allows for systematic organization, coordination, and integration of activities.
- 4) Democratic leadership recognizes individual differences.
- 5) Democratic leadership recognizes common and diverse interests.
- 6) Democratic leadership recognizes voluntary and involuntary groups.

7) Democratic leadership allows for communication from membership to the leader and vice-versa.

8) Democratic leadership encourages a cooperative attitude among all members.

9) Democratic leadership reflects a total interempathic relationship of a sympathetic type.

10) Democratic leadership encourages the willingness to follow group decisions.

Organizations such as the Homemaker Study Group program within the Cooperative Extension Service work to maintain an atmosphere of democratic leadership. Through a variety of leadership training programs, there is emphasis on actions that encourage members to think for themselves, make suggestions, and participate in activities.

Leadership theory is changing. Machlowitz (1982) points to recent social changes of women which affect leadership:

1) movement of women into management.

2) a diminished regard for leaders.

3) a seeming decline of leadership qualities among managers.

Despite the somewhat negative connotation of number two and number three, Machlowitz believes "that leadership skills can be sharpened" and leaders can become effective. Bradford (1976) says that effective leadership is shared leadership. Shared power and authority increases group ownership and involvement, thus raising productivity of the group as well as the satisfaction derived from group membership. A major dimension of leadership can be learned from failure, frustration,

disappointment, despair, as well as achievement (Lippitt, 1961).

### Leadership Training

As leadership theory moved from the inborn quality and trait approach to the approaches which focused on situational aspects, more encouragement was given to training individuals to adapt leadership behavior for a variety of environments. Some believe that leadership effectiveness can be increased through education and training. Bavelas and Lewin (1942:115) contend that "poor leadership can be eliminated by training" and Donohue (1959) concludes that the basic difference between good leaders, poor leaders, and non-leaders is the amount of training and experience they possess.

Bellows (1959) asserts that there are two important criteria for effective leadership training programs. These include the identification of participant need and an emphasis on communication skills. At all times the trainer should keep in mind that:

- 1) Leaders are made, not born.
- 2) Leadership is diffuse.
- 3) Leadership depends on mutual goals and understanding.

According to Bellows, with any type of leadership training, the effective trainer will continue to monitor individual changes, interactions among participants, and the product or outcome of the group activity.

Combs (1970) reiterates that the effectiveness of a teacher or helper is dependent upon how one has learned to use oneself. He outlines these aspects of the effective leader-trainer:

1) Approaches a problem from the point of view of the other person.

2) Believes that people are able, dependable, friendly, and worthy of trust.

3) Sees oneself as positive, liked, wanted, acceptable, able, dignified, worthy, adequate, and confident.

4) Takes a "freeing" rather than a "controlling" purpose.

5) Helps others discover their own best way of teaching.

Bavelas and Lewin (1942) conducted an experiment which involved the efficiency of certain retraining methods in democratic leadership for recreation leaders. Leaders were selected so that age and habits would present difficult cases for the program. Their results showed that participants' behavior went from authoritarian-direct control to democratic initiative-stimulating, and morale of participants went from a definite low to a definite high. Teaching methods for the retrained leaders varied from classroom techniques to group methods, promoting productivity and cooperation among participants. The method of retraining involved a combination of changing attitudes and techniques.

Klubeck and Bass (1954) verified by experiment that leadership status can be changed through brief training, that there are individual differences in tendency to profit from training, and that persons of initially higher leadership status will profit the most from leadership training. Their study involved 140 sorority women selected from seven different sororities at Louisiana State University. The process



included pre/post-tests of leadership status and leadership training sessions. The three hypotheses as stated above were verified by the results of the experiment.

Leadership training programs have been utilized in a variety of settings with measurable success. Burstiner (1972) reports on the evaluation of a mini-workshop in creative leadership for educational administrators. His hypothesis that "as a result of the mini-workshop, self-ratings of school administrators (men and women) participating in the program will reflect significant increases in creativity and leadership traits" could not be rejected after analysis of pre/post test scores (Burstiner, 1972:48). The scores revealed highly significant increases in group means for both creativity and leadership sets of traits. Leadership training programs at the University of South Florida's Women and Administration Institute prepare women for potential administrative advancements within their professions and organizations (Kimmel, Harlow, and Topping, 1979). Participants and leaders reside on campus for three weeks and are engaged in intense leadership training programs daily from 9 a.m. to 11 p.m. Measurement of training impact is through pre/post tests. Data indicate that participants are moving educationally, especially into doctoral programs, as a result of this training. Other results showed an increased positive attitude toward self and others.

Other recent literature (Boston University, 1975; Britton and Elmore, 1976; Howell and Cook, 1978; Howell and Weir, 1978; Sandmeyer, 1977) provides support for leadership training in various situations

and subject matter areas. In 1975 at Boston University, a one year training project in adult education administration for women adult educators resulted in changes for participants in their knowledge of selected woman's issues, organizational theory, and personal assessment for pursuing leadership positions in adult education. Research results from Britton and Elmore (1976) showed that college women exhibited a more liberal feminist attitude as well as more leadership qualities as a result of training sessions that focused on self-development in relation to these topics. Through the use of pre/post test methodology, Howell and Cook (1978) and Howell and Weir (1978) showed how adults increased their organizational participation and public affairs affiliation as a result of having attended rural leadership development programs.

Sandmeyer (1977) has identified factors relating to the success of leadership training programs. According to Sandmeyer, a leadership training program designed to enhance and/or develop leadership skills should include components that focus on the individual as well as on their interaction with the organization. What the organization expects of the individual is as important as what the individual expects of the organization. The individual must believe that what they hope to gain from the organization is compatible with what the organization expects from them. Therefore, those who provide leadership training opportunities need to assess and be aware of individual and organizational needs and goals to enhance the success of such a program.

Haiman (1950) believes that leadership can be developed in

persons of normal intelligence and emotional stability who are making an effort to learn. That belief has been instrumental in forming the process by which the Cooperative Extension Service utilizes leadership training with a variety of clientele groups. The Extension Homemaker Study Group is a key group that utilizes this educational process.

Volunteer teachers, graduates of a variety of leadership training programs, have been called the "backbone of the Cooperative Extension educational program in family living" (Taskerud and Strawn, 1969:53). Training non-professionals to teach others has helped Extension meet the educational needs of large numbers of people with relatively few professional staff. For example, in 1982, there were 100 Home Economics/Family Living staff members in the Minnesota Agricultural Extension Service. During that same year, 21,395 volunteers were trained as leader-teachers (Anderson, 1982).

Extension leadership training programs are conducted by members of the Extension staff and/or other resource people. Traditionally each Extension homemaker study group sends two members to training sessions, and these members return to the group as leaders-teachers. In a 1969 Oregon survey of 70 volunteer leader-teachers, volunteers, after the initial training, spent an average of three hours in independent study and preparation, and one to two hours in presentation time (Taskerud and Strawn, 1969). Results from this provided some confirmation that volunteer leader-teachers do take their work seriously. In the report, it was further noted that these leader-teachers received positive support from group participants in presentation, discussion,

and other activities. Taskerud and Strawn feel that the ability of volunteer leader-teachers to relate to their own group especially in problem solving, is particularly noteworthy. Although no data was gathered to confirm it, they concluded that these leader-teachers frequently reflect the leadership skills they have learned in Extension leadership training programs in various other community group settings. With Extension's guidance and support, these volunteers can continue to accept new leadership roles.

In 1961, a study of the effects of participation in the Extension Homemaker Group Program was conducted by the University of Delaware's Cooperative Extension Service and the Fels Center for Group Dynamics. Conclusions were:

- 1) This group setting provides a suitable environment for bringing about changes in behavior.
- 2) Group leaders increased their self-confidence and skills in subject matter as a result of training programs.
- 3) Training group leaders in the methodology of teaching helped them to do a more competent job, (Reinbald, 1961).

### Summary

Two major theories of leadership have dominated the study of leadership, trait and situational. Though some totally dispute the value or contribution of the trait theory, it did mark the beginning of research on leadership. Situational leadership theory was influenced by the scientific management and human relations movements. The principles of these movements can usually be identified through research of

situational theory.

Leadership style is an important component which affects any leadership model or theory. Researchers have used a variety of terms to identify leadership styles. Through leadership training programs individuals can change their leadership behavior. Leadership training programs are an important component of the Cooperative Extension Service, including the Extension Homemaker Study Group.

## CHAPTER III

### Methodology

The purpose of this study was to investigate the involvement of Lyon County, Minnesota Homemaker Study Group members in Extension leadership development activities in relation to the leadership style the members utilized. Elements of methodology are described in this chapter.

#### Design

The research was designed to obtain descriptive data on the leadership behavior of participants in the Extension Homemaker Study Group Program in Lyon County, Minnesota. All 500 members of the homemaker study group program in January, 1983 made up the accessible population.

The questionnaire was selected as a method of obtaining information because it enabled reaching a large number of people in a short amount of time while allowing respondents to remain anonymous. The researcher's access to the subjects enabled ease of administration and kept cost relatively low. Three types of information were obtained: 1) demographic characteristics, 2) extent of participation in leadership activities, and 3) leadership style.

The three-part questionnaire was initially administered to 26 home councilors. (Councilors are those persons who represent their local homemaker study group at a training session and then return to the group with a similar program.) After completing the instrument, the councilors were given copies to take to their local group for

completion at their next meeting. The councilors were to have local group members complete the questionnaire and return it to the councilor at the time of the meeting. Completed instruments were then mailed or delivered to the researcher by the councilor.

Data was coded by the researcher and statistical analysis was done at the South Dakota State University Computer Center.

### Sample

The 26 councilors attending the January Home Council Meeting completed the instrument and received instruction as to the administration of it to their group members. Three hundred sixty-eight instruments were distributed to Extension Homemaker Study Group members through Lyon County Home Councilors in January, 1983. All questionnaires were to be returned within a month. Those councilors absent for the Home Council meeting did not participate in the study nor was there an attempt to reach the group members which they represented. The absentees did not appear to form any distinct entity that would differentiate them from those present and the distribution was high enough to provide sufficient data for analysis.

There were 500 members in the study; questionnaires were distributed to 368 of these members. A total of 250 questionnaires were completed for use in data analysis.

### Instrumentation

The questionnaire for this study consisted of three parts: 1) Personal Data Sheet; 2) Membership Participation Survey; and 3)

### Leadership Ability Evaluation (LAE).

The Personal Data Sheet contained a total of 6 questions related to years of membership in an Extension Homemaker Study Group, age, residence, educational attainment, offspring, and employment. These items were selected because of their possible relevance to the leadership participation and style scores that would be identified in parts two and three of the questionnaire. A copy of this data sheet is found in Appendix A.

The Membership Participation Survey was developed by the researcher and divided into three parts. Leadership development experiences available within the Extension Homemaker Study Group Program were identified and then categorized according to the complexity of the task.

- High Complexity: program leader, home councilor, home council or study group officer, group organizer, program volunteer for home council or study group.

- Medium Complexity: home council or study group committee member, program contributor, discussion leader, group encourager.

- Low Complexity: home council or group helper, one who shared ideas, participant at leadership development program.

Participants in the survey identified the number of times they had participated in each given activity. The resulting number was the participation score for that category. To obtain the total participation score, each of the three participation subscores were weighted as follows:



- High Complexity: Subtotal x 3.
- Medium Complexity: Subtotal X 2.
- Low Complexity: Subtotal X 1.

The sum of three weighted subtotals was the individual's total participation score. Actual scores ranged from 0 to 166. A 0 score meant that the homemaker study group member had not participated in any leadership tasks. A 166 score meant that the homemaker study group member had participated in a variety of low, medium, and high leadership tasks. These scores were based on participation within the task during the last 5 years. A copy of the Membership Participation Survey is found in Appendix A.

The third part of the instrumentation concerned leadership style. Through literature search, it was apparent that there were few available instruments measuring leadership style and many of these were not conducive for use with Extension Homemaker Study Groups. The Leadership Ability Evaluation (LAE) was selected because it is based on decision patterns or styles familiar to Extension Homemaker Study Group members. Leadership styles which the LAE identifies had been utilized in previous Extension Homemaker Study Group leadership development programs. The format for completion of the LAE was workable and achievable for all participants. The 50 life situations utilized within the LAE were familiar to all participants as well.

The LAE, developed by Cassel and Stancik, has been utilized several times in various group settings. The questionnaire is used to assess the decision-making pattern of an individual when he or she

functions as a leader. Cassel and Stancik (1982) view leadership as influencing another person or group of persons to move toward the leader's objectives. This perspective is compatible with the definition of leadership in this research to the extent that both are concerned with the ability of one to influence others. They differ in that Cassel and Stancik view leader objectives as paramount while Extension places priority on group goals.

The LAE consists of 50 life situations each having four possible solutions. Each situation describes a person acting as a leader wishing to influence another person or group of persons towards a specific goal. The following two items are examples of LAE situations:

10. A friend is running for a political office which you think he (or she) should not have. The friend asks you to campaign for him (or her). What do you do?
  - A. Tell your friend he (or she) is not the right person for the office.
  - B. Tell your friend you will think it over.
  - C. Say nothing but do not campaign.
  - D. Discuss this with other friends.
  
25. Your group is trying to decide where to go for the evening. You prefer to go dancing. What do you do?
  - A. Insist on going dancing or you and your date will go alone.
  - B. Ask your friends how much they can afford to spend, then suggest places accordingly.
  - C. Say nothing and go with the group.
  - D. State your preference but go along with the majority decision.

Participants select the solution which they feel would best accomplish the leader's goal. The four solutions represent laissez-faire, democratic-cooperative, autocratic-submissive, or

autocratic-aggressive styles of leadership. Approximately 15 to 20 minutes is required to complete the LAE.

The LAE is scored by assigning a value to each of the four leadership styles as follows:

Laissez-faire - 1

Democratic-cooperative - 2

Autocratic-submissive - 3

Autocratic-aggressive - 4

These number assignments have no particular value other than to designate style selection in analysis. The suggested LAE Profile and Determination of Total Score was not utilized in this research.

The fifty life situations in the LAE can be subdivided into 5 different life activity areas, with 10 items relating to each area:

Home and Family Life

Work and Vocational Pursuits

Play and Avocational Pursuits

School and Educational Pursuits

Community Life

Subgroup scoring is the same as scoring for the total instrument.

The 1981 Revised LAE is a copyrighted instrument and cannot be reproduced as part of this study. It can be obtained from Western Psychological Services, Los Angeles, California.

## CHAPTER IV

### Findings and Discussion

The purpose of this study was to investigate the involvement of Lyon County Minnesota Homemaker Study Group members in Extension leadership development activities in relation to the leadership style the members utilized. Data were obtained through the use of a three-part questionnaire from 250 women who participated in the Extension Homemaker Study Group Program in Lyon County, Minnesota in January, 1983.

#### Description of Subjects

Demographic data were secured through a series of questions included in the questionnaire. A summary of the background information is found in Table I. When appropriate data were available, comparisons of subject characteristics were made with a 1979 Lyon County, Minnesota Survey of the Extension Homemaker Study Group Program. Other surveys with neighboring counties in Southwest Minnesota also provided some comparison data, found in Table II.

Membership in the Lyon County, Minnesota Extension Homemaker Group Program is a long term commitment for a large percentage of the membership. Of the total number participating, 26 percent had been involved in the program for 6 to 10 years and 43.6 percent for 11 years or more. A possible implication for the remaining 30.4 percent who had been a member 5 years or less is that interest is low in the program for younger and/or new residents. This breakdown was similar to that

Table I: Summary Of Demographic Data On Lyon County Extension Homemaker Study Group Members, 1979 And 1983.

Characteristic	Lyon County 1983		Lyon County 1979	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Membership				
5 years or less	76	30.4	--	--
6-10 years	65	26.0	--	--
11 years or more	109	43.6	--	--
Age				
30 years or less	31	12.4	65	19.0
31-50 years	118	47.2	174	50.8
51 years ore more	101	40.4	103	30.2
Residence				
Farm	136	54.4	201	58.8
Town	98	39.2	122	35.7
Country not farm	16	6.4	19	5.5
Education				
Less than high school	34	13.6	49	14.3
High School	108	43.2	129	37.7
Vocational/Technical	38	15.2	36	10.5
College work	33	13.2	53	15.5
Undergraduate degree	14	5.6	54	15.8
Graduate degree	23	9.2	21	6.2
Children				
Children	230	92.0	322	94.2
No Children	20	8.0	20	5.8
Employment				
Employed	83	33.2	97	28.4
Not Employed	167	66.8	245	71.6
	N = 250		N = 342	

-- = No Data Available

Table II: Comparison Of Demographic Data On Extension Homemaker Study Group Members In Two Southwest Minnesota Counties.

Characteristic	Cottonwood County 1983		Kandiyohi County 1983	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Membership				
3 years or less	60	21.8	451	34.0
4-9 years	66	24.0	438	33.0
9 years or more	149	54.2	438	33.0
Age				
25 years or less	10	3.6	66	5.0
26-35 years	50	18.2	385	29.0
36-45 years	46	16.7	292	22.0
46-55 years	59	21.5	186	14.0
56-64 years	48	17.5	239	18.0
65 years or more	62	22.5	159	12.0
Residence				
Farm	107	39.0	425	32.0
Town	110	40.0	597	45.0
Country not farm	58	21.0	305	23.0
Education				
Less than high school	56	20.4	93	7.0
High School	109	39.6	504	38.0
Vocational/Technical	64	23.3	451	34.0
College work	--	--	--	--
Undergraduate degree	35	12.7	239	18.0
Graduate degree	11	4.0	40	3.0
Employment				
Employed	165	60.0	610	46.0
Not Employed	110	40.0	717	54.0
	N = 275		N = 1327	

-- = No Data Available

of Cottonwood County where the higher membership percentage (54.2 percent) was in the 9 years or more category. In Kandiyohi County, there was a more even distribution among the three categories.

The age data from this research and from surveys in other Southwest Minnesota counties supports the initial indication that there is low interest in the Extension Homemaker Study Group Program for younger subjects. A minority of members in Lyon County were 30 years old or less, and 25 or less in Cottonwood and Kandiyohi Counties. The percentage of young participants has decreased by 6.6 percent in Lyon County between 1979 and 1983.

The image of Extension Homemaker Study Groups as an activity for rural homemakers appears to have prevailed to the current time. More than half of the 250 subjects in this study were farm residents. The percentage was higher in Lyon County than in the neighboring counties of Cottonwood and Kandiyohi. Even though Lyon County had a 5 percent decrease in rural farm membership from 1979 to 1983, and no change in the rural non-farm population, its rural membership was equal to Cottonwood County and 5 percent higher than Kandiyohi County. Despite a 3 percent increase in Lyon County's town membership it was still lower than Cottonwood County and Kandiyohi County. Marshall, the largest town in Lyon County with an approximate population of 11,000, does offer the possibilities of increasing the membership in the town category. This data reflects that the potential for growth in town membership has yet to be realized.

The educational attainment of Extension Homemaker Study Group

members in Lyon County changed from 1979 to 1983. Members who had high school, vocational/technical training, and graduate college work increased but there was a decrease in membership who had done college work and/or completed college degrees. This is reflective of a county-wide trend. From 1980 to 1983, the number of Lyon County adults completing a high school education increased 110 percent (Jorgensen, 1984).

Lyon, Cottonwood, and Kandiyohi Counties all showed a high concentration of membership in the high school graduate and vocational/technical school categories. Lyon County had a higher number attending and completing college and graduate studies. Since a state university, Southwest State, is located in Marshall, college study is more accessible for Lyon County residents.

From 1979 to 1983 there was a 3 percent decrease in the number of members who had children, but the number with children still constituted a large majority. Data from other counties were not available for this category. One question that arises is whether or not Extension Homemaker Study Group Programs are consciously or unconsciously orienting programs more toward families with children. Perhaps, too, the reputation of Extension Home Economics as a program for families is interpreted as not being relevant to the needs of families without children.

The proportion of Lyon County Extension Homemaker Study Group members employed outside the home grew 5 percent from 1979 to 1983. Despite the increase, the percentage remains lower than that in the



neighboring counties of Cottonwood and Kandiyohi. This data may be the most crucial for programming. Non-traditional program delivery methods need to be utilized to involve the member who may be available only on weekends or evenings. The 1980 Census data for Lyon County indicate that 51 percent of the females with children under age 6 and 70 percent of the females with children age 6-17 work outside the home (Minnesota Analysis and Planning System, 1980). Program expansion may be dependent on increasing membership among this segment of the population.

### Participation of Subjects

Data on leadership participation was secured through a Membership Participation Survey. Subjects were asked to indicate the number of times within the last five years they had participated in various activities. Activities were divided into the three categories of high, medium, and low according to the complexity of the leadership task. Scores identifying the extent to which members were involved in these tasks are presented in Table III.

There were nine high complexity leadership tasks in which members could have participated within the last 5 years. The maximum obtainable score in high leadership would have been 45, the minimum 0. Scores in the high leadership category varied widely with a mean score of 6.51 and standard deviation of 5.97. Analysis of the cumulative frequency percentage showed that a majority of the subjects scored below the mean with less than 5 percent scoring in the upper range of 18 to 38. Even though the largest percentage of the membership had

Table III. Membership Participation Survey Data.

Level of Participation	Score Range		Frequency		Mean $\bar{x}$	Standard Deviation
	Possible	Obtained	N <sup>1</sup>	% of Total		
High Complexity	0-45	1-38	223	89	6.51	5.97
Medium Complexity	0-40	1-25	177	71	4.80	5.60
Low Complexity	0-25	1-18	104	42	1.40	2.65
Total	0-240	1-166	250	100	30.19	27.64

Total N = 250

<sup>1</sup>N = Number of subjects participating at each task level.

belonged to the organization more than 5 years, their overall involvement in high complexity leadership tasks was low.

Eight tasks were identified in the median complexity section of leadership participation. The maximum obtainable score for the medium complexity leadership tasks was 40, the minimum 0. Scores ranged from 1 to 25 with a mean of 4.80 and standard deviation of 5.60. Scores were skewed toward the lower end with over 60 percent of the subjects having scores below the mean.

Five tasks were identified in the low complexity section of leadership participation. The maximum obtainable score for the low complexity leadership tasks was 25, the minimum 0. Again, the majority (72 percent) of the low leadership scores, like those of high and medium leadership, were below the mean.

It is debatable as to whether or not participant scores for level of task complexity imply an acceptable degree of activity. Initially, these scores may seem low and indicative of members who are not very active in leadership tasks at any level. It is important to note some possible reasons for these low scores. Remembering a task that was accomplished 5 years ago may have been difficult for some. Since there is not an annual opportunity for every member to participate in every task, the possibility for low participation within a 5 year period is apparent. For example, each homemaker study group selects one councilor each year. Many high complexity tasks result from being in the role of councilor. Therefore, within a 5 year period, only 5 members within a group would have had opportunities for

many of the high complexity tasks.

#### Demographic Characteristics and Participation Scores

Demographic characteristics of subjects were related to mean scores for each level of leadership task participation. Resulting data is given in Table IV. Highest participation was among those who had been members 6 to 10 years and were 31 to 50 years old.

Farm residents were most active in high leadership tasks, town residents most active in medium leadership tasks. Subjects with less than a high school education consistently held the lowest score at all task complexity levels. Those with undergraduate and graduate degrees scored the highest in medium and low leadership levels. Thus, those who seem best academically equipped for leadership are not the ones who exhibit high leadership participation in Extension Home Economics programs.

Most of the subjects, 92 percent, had children in their families. Traditionally, Extension programs have been aimed at the family, which to many, means children. This seems to be supported by the data in this research. Those with children, did have a higher mean participation score than the overall mean of the total population. Caution should be used in interpreting this data because of the disproportionate number of subjects.

Compared to the national averages, a low proportion, 33.2 percent, of this population was employed outside the home. The employed group had a higher mean score in high and medium leadership than did

Table IV. Comparison Of Demographic Characteristics With Membership Participation Data.

Characteristic	Frequency N	Member Participation					
		High Complexity		Medium Complexity		Low Complexity	
		$\Sigma$	$\bar{x}$	$\Sigma$	$\bar{x}$	$\Sigma$	$\bar{x}$
<u>Membership</u>							
5 years or less	76	314	4.13	193	2.54	47	.62
6-10 years	66	551	8.35	434	6.58	116	1.76
11 years or more	108	770	7.13	581	5.38	195	1.81
<u>Age</u>							
30 years or more	31	192	6.19	142	4.59	22	.71
31-50 years	119	916	7.70	655	5.50	208	1.75
51 or more years	100	527	5.27	411	4.11	128	1.28
<u>Residence</u>							
Farm	136	906	6.66	638	4.69	177	1.30
Town	98	635	6.48	493	5.03	164	1.67
Country Not Farm	16	94	5.88	77	4.81	17	1.06
<u>Education</u>							
Less than High School	34	147	4.32	79	2.32	33	.97
High School	108	778	7.20	541	5.00	156	1.44
Vocational/Technical	38	239	6.29	214	5.63	41	1.08
College Work	33	242	7.33	157	4.76	53	1.61
Undergraduate Degree	14	96	6.86	98	7.00	25	1.79
Graduate Degree	23	133	5.78	119	5.17	50	2.17
<u>Children</u>							
Children	229	1572	6.86	1161	5.07	333	1.45
No Children	18	57	3.17	32	1.78	20	1.11
<u>Employment</u>							
Employed	83	597	7.19	445	5.36	111	1.34
Not Employed	165	1032	6.25	748	4.53	242	1.47

those who were not employed outside the home. One conjecture is that the work environment may contribute to leadership development. Another implication is that time itself is not a reliable indicator of the complexity of leadership in which one engages.

### Leadership Style

The data for leadership style was obtained through the Leadership Ability Evaluation (LAE). The democratic-cooperative style of leadership characterized the Extension Homemaker Study Group member in Lyon County. There are 50 situations in the LAE. The mean number of times subjects chose the democratic-cooperative style of leadership was more than 27.79. Autocratic-submissive was 10.16, laissez-faire, 7.91, and autocratic-aggressive, 3.29. (The total is 49.2 rather than 50 because subjects occasionally failed to respond to all 50 situations).

These findings indicate that the Cooperative Extension Service confirms Lester's (1975) contention that the democratic-cooperative style of leadership seems to offer the most promise in organizations for achieving maximum results. Lester does allow that there are exceptions since different situations which may arise within the organization could require any of the four designated leadership styles. The Cooperative Extension Service espouses and promotes the use of democratic-cooperative style of leadership. Perhaps some claim for success is warranted since the democratic philosophy appears to be a pervasive element in the leadership of Extension Homemaker Study Group members.

### Demographic Characteristics and Leadership Style

Demographic data were compared with scores on leadership style. Results are shown in Table V. As stated, the democratic-cooperative style of leadership was most often utilized. Further breakdown showed its most prevalent use among 6 to 10 year members, the 31 to 50 year olds, the farm residents, the vocational/technical school graduates, the members who had children, and those employed outside the home.

The laissez-faire style of leadership was more likely to be characteristic of those who had been a member less than 5 years, were 30 years old or less, lived in the country but not on a farm, had less than a high school education, had no children and were employed outside the home. The autocratic-submissive style of leadership was utilized most often by those who have been group members 11 years or more, were 51 years or older, lived in the country but not on a farm, had less than a high school education, no children, and were not employed outside the home. The autocratic-aggressive style of leadership was, overall, the least preferred. Few used this style, but those who most often did had been a group members 6 to 10 years, were 51 years old or older, lived in the country but not on a farm, had less than a high school education, no children, and were not employed outside the home.

### Participation and Leadership Style

Participation scores were weighted to obtain an overall score and were then analyzed with leadership style scores. As participation scores increased, so did the frequency with which the

Table V. Comparison of Demographic Data With Leadership Style Utilization In Leadership Ability Evaluation.

Characteristic	Frequency  N	Leadership Style							
		Laissez-Faire		Demo.-Coop.		Auto.-Sub.		Auto.-Agg.	
		$\Sigma$	$\bar{X}$	$\Sigma$	$\bar{X}$	$\Sigma$	$\bar{X}$	$\Sigma$	$\bar{X}$
<u>Membership</u>									
5 years or less	76	643	8.46	2087	27.46	745	9.80	231	3.04
6-10 years	66	474	7.18	1937	29.35	634	9.61	237	3.59
11 years or more	108	860	7.96	2923	27.06	1162	10.76	355	3.29
<u>Age</u>									
30 years or more	31	283	9.13	878	28.32	304	9.81	85	2.74
31-50 years	119	919	7.72	3428	28.80	1113	9.35	389	3.27
51 or more years	100	775	7.75	2641	26.41	1124	11.24	349	3.49
<u>Residence</u>									
Farm	136	1044	7.68	3866	28.35	1353	9.95	446	3.28
Town	98	776	7.92	2679	27.34	1021	10.42	314	3.20
Country Not Farm	16	157	9.81	412	25.75	167	10.44	63	3.94
<u>Education</u>									
Less than High School	34	309	9.09	776	22.82	401	11.79	161	4.74
High School	108	832	7.70	3054	28.28	1112	10.30	345	3.19
Vocational/Technical	38	304	8.00	1112	29.26	372	9.79	104	2.74
College Work	33	242	7.33	916	27.76	314	9.52	107	3.24
Undergraduate Degree	14	113	8.07	437	31.21	120	8.57	30	2.14
Graduate Degree	23	177	7.70	652	28.35	222	9.65	76	3.30
<u>Children</u>									
Children	229	1790	7.82	6452	28.17	2292	10.01	754	3.29
No Children	18	168	9.33	419	23.28	219	12.17	65	3.61
<u>Employment</u>									
Employed	83	689	8.30	2332	28.10	759	9.14	274	3.30
Not Employed	165	1272	7.71	4562	27.65	1773	10.75	548	3.32



democratic-cooperative style of leadership was used (Table VI). The same was true of the autocratic-submissive style. The highest users of the laissez-faire, autocratic-submissive, and autocratic-aggressive leadership styles were those who had the lowest participation scores. Again, some claim for success in promotion of the democratic-cooperative style of leadership seems warranted.

#### Leadership Style in Life Activity Areas

The 50 questions of the LAE can be classified into 5 life activity areas: home and family life; work and vocational pursuits; play and avocational pursuits; school and educational pursuits; and, community life. The data shown in Table VII shows that the democratic-cooperative leadership was most used in all areas, was highest for the two areas of home and family life and school and educational pursuits and lowest in play and avocational pursuits. When the autocratic-submissive style was used, it was most likely to be in the areas of work and vocational pursuits and community life. The autocratic-aggressive style was most often used in play and vocational pursuits and the laissez-faire in community life.

#### Testing of Hypothesis

Mean participation scores were determined for all demographic characteristics. Analysis of variance was then used to test hypotheses on the relationship of member participation levels to demographic characteristics.

Leadership style data was available only in the form of

Table VI. Comparison of Weighted Participation Survey Scores with Leadership Style Utilization Identified in Leadership Ability Evaluation (LAE).

Participation Frequency Score		Leadership Style							
		Laissez-Faire		Democratic-Cooperative		Autocratic-Submissive		Autocratic-Aggressive	
		$\Sigma$	$\bar{x}$	$\Sigma$	$\bar{x}$	$\Sigma$	$\bar{x}$	$\Sigma$	$\bar{x}$
0-25	133	1130	8.50	3440	25.86	1389	10.44	466	3.50
26-50	61	431	7.07	1798	29.48	627	10.28	210	3.44
51+	56	416	7.43	1709	30.52	525	9.38	147	2.63
TOTAL	250	1977	7.91	6947	27.79	2541	10.16	823	3.29

Table VII. Leadership Style Mean Frequencies for Five Life Activity Areas Identified in Leadership Ability Evaluation (LAE).

Life Activity Areas <sup>1</sup>	Leadership Style			
	Laissez-Faire	Democratic-Cooperative	Autocratic-Submissive	Autocratic-Aggressive
	$\bar{x}$	$\bar{x}$	$\bar{x}$	$\bar{x}$
Home and Family Life	.608	7.488	1.36	.388
Work and Vocational Pursuits	2.048	3.928	3.016	.828
Play and Avocational Pursuits	1.668	4.892	2.296	.936
School and Educational Pursuits	1.428	6.78	1.176	.424
Community Life	2.152	4.668	2.312	.716

<sup>1</sup>There are 10 situations for each life activity area.

frequencies. Chi-square was selected as the appropriate statistical technique to use in testing the significance of relationship between the leadership style and demographic information. In each hypothesis where the chi-square test was applied, data is presented in sums for leadership styles. The sums represent the total number of times that members selected those styles of leadership in the Leadership Ability Evaluation (LAE). The formula used for calculating chi-square was:

$$\chi^2 = \sum \frac{(O - E)^2}{E}$$

Degrees of Freedom = (r - 1) (c - 1).

'O' is the observed (Lyon County, Minnesota Extension Homemaker Study Group member).

'E' is the expected (the row total times the column total, divided by the grand total).

'r' is the number of rows in the table.

'c' is the number of columns (Mason and Bramble, 1978).

Four hypotheses were developed to test the relationships among demographic characteristics, program participation, and leadership style of Extension Homemaker Study Group members in Lyon County, Minnesota. The minimum level of probability acceptable for significance was set at .05.

### Hypothesis One

There is no significant relationship between selected demographic characteristics of the Extension Homemaker Study Group Members and their participation in Extension leadership training programs.

Data resulting from testing the hypothesis is found in Table VIII. The hypothesis was rejected because significant relationships

Table VIII. Analysis of Variance Results from Comparison of Demographic Characteristics with Membership Participation.

N	Years of Membership	$\bar{x}$	Grouping	N	Education	$\bar{x}$	Grouping
3	5 years or less	2.43	B	3	Less than high school	2.54	B
3	6-10 years	5.56	A	3	High school	4.55	A
3	11 years or more	4.77	A	3	Vocational/Technical	4.33	A
Degrees of Freedom 2 F Value 10.57 Probability of F < 0.0253				3	College work	4.57	A
				3	Undergraduate degree	5.22	A
				3	Graduate degree	4.37	A
				Degrees of Freedom 5 F Value 3.60 Probability of F < 0.0403			
N	Age	$\bar{x}$	Grouping	N	Children	$\bar{x}$	Grouping
3	30 years old or less	3.83	--	3	Children	4.46	--
3	31-50 years old	4.98	--	3	No Children	2.02	--
3	51 years old	3.55	--	--	--	--	--
Degrees of Freedom 2 F Value 6.29 Probability of F < .0583				Degrees of Freedom 1 F Value 5.34 Probability of F < 0.1471			
				--	--	--	--
N	Residence	$\bar{x}$	Grouping	N	Employment	$\bar{x}$	Grouping
3	Farm	4.22	--	3	Employed	4.63	--
3	Town	4.39	--	3	Not Employed	4.08	--
3	Not farm country	3.92	--	--	--	--	--
Degrees of Freedom 2 F Value 2.98 Probability of F < 0.1610				Degrees of Freedom 1 F Value 2.59 Probability of F < 0.2490			

-- No grouping identified. Means with different letters are significantly different.

were found between the demographic characteristics of membership and education. A significant difference was found between participants who had been members of an Extension Homemaker Study Group 5 years or less and those with more years of membership. The difference for this member segment may be attributable to their involvement in low complexity tasks or total lack of participation. These factors may indicate that programs are not meeting the needs of these members.

Significant demographic differences were not found in the areas of age, residence, children, or employment. There was, however, a significant difference noted for the educational characteristic. Those members who had completed less than a high school education had significantly lower average mean participation scores than all other groups.

### Hypothesis Two

There is no significant relationship between selected demographic characteristics of Extension Homemaker Study Group Members and their leadership style.

Data resulting from testing the hypothesis is found in Table IX. The hypothesis was rejected because  $\chi^2$  was significant for each of the demographic characteristics as related to leadership style. Table V, showing the mean leadership scores, can be used to detect the direction of these differences.

In all demographic areas, the democratic-cooperative style of leadership was identified most often, followed by autocratic-submissive, laissez-faire, and autocratic-aggressive. A profile of the

Table IX. Chi-Square Analysis of Demographic Characteristics and Leadership Style.

Demographic Characteristic	Leadership Style				Totals
	Laissez- Faire	Democratic- Cooperative	Autocratic- Submissive	Autocratic- Aggressive	
<b>Membership</b>					
5 years or less	643	2087	745	231	3706
6-10 years	474	1937	634	237	3282
11 years or more	860	2923	1162	355	5300
Totals	1977	6947	2541	823	12288
Degrees of Freedom $\chi^2$ Level of Significance					
6      24.717      0.01					
<b>Age</b>					
30 years or less	283	878	304	85	1550
31-50 years	919	3428	1113	389	5849
51 years or more	775	2641	1124	349	4889
Totals	1977	6947	2541	823	12288
Degrees of Freedom $\chi^2$ Level of Significance					
6      41.176      0.01					
<b>Residence</b>					
Farm	1044	3856	1353	446	6699
Town	776	2679	1021	314	4790
Country not farm	157	412	167	63	799
Totals	1977	6947	2541	823	12288
Degrees of Freedom $\chi^2$ Level of Significance					
6      15.994      0.05					
<b>Education</b>					
Less than high school	309	776	401	161	1647
High school	832	3054	1112	345	5343
Vocational/Technical	304	1112	372	104	1892
College work	242	916	314	107	1579
Undergraduate degree	113	437	120	30	700
Graduate degree	117	652	222	76	1127
Totals	1977	6947	2541	823	12288
Degrees of Freedom $\chi^2$ Level of Significance					
15      92.896      0.01					

Table IX. Chi-Square Analysis of Demographic Characteristics and Leadership Style.  
(continued)

Demographic Characteristic	Leadership Style				Totals
	Laissez- Faire	Democratic- Cooperative	Autocratic- Submissive	Autocratic- Aggressive	
<u>Children</u>					
Children	1790	6452	2292	754	11288
No Children	168	419	219	65	871
Totals	1958	6871	2511	819	12159
Degrees of Freedom $\chi^2$ Level of Significance					
3                              27.539                      0.01					
<u>Employment</u>					
Employed	689	2332	759	274	4054
Not employed	1272	4562	1773	548	8155
Totals	1961	6894	2532	822	12209
Degrees of Freedom $\chi^2$ Level of Significance					
3                              16.401                      0.01					

member most frequently identifying the democratic-cooperative style would include:

- has been a member of an Extension Homemaker Study Group 6-10 years
- is 31-50 years old
- is a farm resident
- has an undergraduate college degree
- has children
- is employed outside the home

### Hypothesis Three

There is no significant relationship between Extension Homemaker Study Group Members' participation in Extension leadership training programs and their leadership style.

Data resulting from testing the hypothesis is found in Table X.

The hypothesis was rejected because  $\chi^2$  was significant. As participation scores increased so did the frequency of the democratic-cooperative style of leadership. This was contrary to the frequency of autocratic-submissive and autocratic-aggressive style of leadership, both of which decreased as participation scores increased. Participation is thus a relevant factor in building understanding and use of the democratic-cooperative style of leadership.

### Hypothesis Four

There is no significant relationship between the leadership style of Extension Homemaker Study Group Members and life activity areas.

Data resulting from testing the hypothesis is found in



Table X. Chi-Square Analysis of Member Participation and Leadership Style.

Participation Score	Frequency N	Leadership Style							
		Laissez-Faire		Democratic-Cooperative		Autocratic-Submissive		Autocratic-Aggressive	
		$\Sigma$	$\bar{x}$	$\Sigma$	$\bar{x}$	$\Sigma$	$\bar{x}$	$\Sigma$	$\bar{x}$
0-25	133	1130	8.50	3440	25.86	1389	10.44	466	3.50
26-50	61	431	7.07	1798	29.48	627	10.28	210	3.44
51+	56	416	7.43	1709	30.52	525	9.38	147	2.63
TOTAL	250	1977	7.91	6947	27.79	2541	10.16	823	3.29
Degrees of Freedom		$\chi^2$		Level of Significance					
6		61.814		.0001					

Table XI. The hypothesis was rejected because  $X^2$  was significant. Though the democratic-cooperative style of leadership was dominant for all areas, there were differences in the extent of its dominance. In every area except school and educational pursuits, the mean frequency for democratic-cooperative leadership style increased as participation scores increased.

Table XI. Chi Square Analysis of Participation Scores and Leadership Styles for each Life Activity Area.

Home and Family					Work and Vocational Pursuits				
Part. Score N	Laissez- Faire $\Sigma$ $\bar{x}$	Demo-Coop $\Sigma$ $\bar{x}$	Auto-Sub $\Sigma$ $\bar{x}$	Auto-Agg $\Sigma$ $\bar{x}$	Laissez- Faire $\Sigma$ $\bar{x}$	Demo-Coop $\Sigma$ $\bar{x}$	Auto-Sub $\Sigma$ $\bar{x}$	Auto-Agg $\Sigma$ $\bar{x}$	
0-25 133	91 .68	941 7.08	196 1.47	62 .47	290 2.1	482 3.62	398 2.99	111 .83	
26-50 61	35 .57	481 7.89	78 1.28	18 .30	110 1.80	260 4.26	188 3.08	57 .93	
51+ 56	26 .46	450 8.04	66 1.18	17 .30	112 2.00	240 4.29	168 3.00	39 .70	

Play and Avocational Pursuits					School and Educational Pursuits				
Part. Score N	Laissez- Faire $\Sigma$ $\bar{x}$	Demo-Coop $\Sigma$ $\bar{x}$	Auto-Sub $\Sigma$ $\bar{x}$	Auto-Agg $\Sigma$ $\bar{x}$	Laissez- Faire $\Sigma$ $\bar{x}$	Demo-Coop $\Sigma$ $\bar{x}$	Auto-Sub $\Sigma$ $\bar{x}$	Auto-Agg $\Sigma$ $\bar{x}$	
0-25 133	241 1.81	602 4.53	307 2.31	127 .95	209 1.57	830 6.24	172 1.29	68 .51	
26-50 61	97 1.59	308 5.05	145 2.38	62 1.02	69 1.13	453 7.43	67 1.10	24 .39	
51+ 56	79 1.41	313 5.59	122 2.18	45 .80	79 1.41	412 7.36	55 1.02	14 .25	

Community Life				
Part. Score N	Laissez- Faire $\Sigma$ $\bar{x}$	Demo-Coop $\Sigma$ $\bar{x}$	Auto-Sub $\Sigma$ $\bar{x}$	Auto-Agg $\Sigma$ $\bar{x}$
0-25 133	298 2.24	581 4.37	311 2.34	98 .74
26-50 61	120 1.97	292 4.79	153 2.51	49 .80
51+ 56	120 2.14	294 5.25	114 2.04	32 .57

Degrees of Freedom 38

 $\chi^2$  81.351

Level of Significance &lt; 0.0001

## CHAPTER V

Summary and RecommendationsSummary

The purpose of this study was to investigate the involvement of Lyon County Minnesota Homemaker Study Group members in Extension leadership development activities in relation to the leadership style the members utilized. Data was obtained through the use of a three-part questionnaire from 250 women who participated in the Extension Homemaker Study Group Program in Lyon County, Minnesota in January, 1983. The instrument distribution represented 74 percent of total membership of organized Extension Homemaker Study Groups and 66 percent of the total number of organized Extension Homemaker Study Groups in Lyon County. Chi-square and Analysis of Variance was used to test the hypotheses.

A review of current literature revealed a variety of information on the topic of leadership. Basic leadership theory focuses on inborn leadership ability and situational leadership. The use of leadership style may be relative to a given situation. Researchers present a variety of findings on the positive effects of leadership training.

The Cooperative Extension Service provides leadership training programs to many clientele groups. Members of Extension Homemaker Study Groups participate in a variety of these leadership training programs. These programs emphasize the democratic-cooperative style of

leadership.

In this study of Lyon County, Minnesota Extension Homemaker Study Group members, democratic-cooperative leadership was identified as a predominant style. As the participation in leadership training programs increased, the use of democratic leadership also increased. The home was identified as the life activity area where the democratic-cooperative style of leadership was most utilized. The democratic-cooperative style of leadership was the least used in the life activity area of work and vocational pursuits.

Several significant relationships were found between selected demographic data characteristics, level of member participation and leadership style. The highest participation was found among those who had been members 6 to 10 years and were 31 to 50 years old. Democratic-cooperative was identified as the dominant style of leadership in this study. Those who had been a member 6 to 10 years and were 31 to 50 years old identified this style of leadership most often.

### Implications

Members of Lyon County's Extension Homemaker Study Group Program are frequently utilizing the democratic-cooperative style of leadership in all areas of their lives. This utilization may be due to the emphasis given to democratic leadership in Extension Programs in which these members participate. The influence of this participation may have effects yet to be measured.

These participants are family members who influence not only homes and families but places of employment, educational institutions,

community groups and organizations. The effects are not easily measured. Within the realms of Extension leadership training programs, the focus is on a process which emphasizes the utilization of each individual's ideas within a group setting and allows for systematic organization to achieve goals. Based on the variety of activity areas of one's life, accurate measurement of the impact of this process is difficult. However, efforts to further delineate and assess the nature of such programs is a vital and necessary commitment.

The home was identified as the life activity area where democratic-cooperative leadership is most frequently used. Assuming that the democratic-cooperative style is most desirable, one might conclude that Extension programs are providing a positive influence for the growth and development of family members. This influence could also affect the other environments with which these families interact. Possibly, other environments may be strengthened through the involvement of these family members utilizing their democratic-cooperative leadership abilities.

The development of democratic-cooperative leadership ability will not happen spontaneously. Time is needed. As one participates in programs to learn democratic-cooperative leadership skills and then applies these skills in various situations, development will be enhanced. In this study, as participation in Extension leadership training programs increased so did the utilization of the democratic-cooperative style of leadership.

## Recommendations

In this study, a positive relationship was shown between participation in Extension leadership training programs and the utilization of the democratic-cooperative style of leadership. Leadership experts have identified the democratic-cooperative style of leadership as a positive, growth-producing influence. The Cooperative Extension Service emphasizes this style of leadership in its programs. These programs should be expanded, given higher priority, and aimed at new audiences. For example, leadership training programs intended for Extension Homemaker Group members could easily meet the program needs of various community organizations as well as those of individuals who do not necessarily have a community group affiliation. The positive influence of democratic-cooperative leadership is applicable in any life activity area. There also needs to be greater emphasis put on reaching the young homemakers especially below the age of thirty. New program delivery methods are needed to reach this population. The new methods should also consider the urban homemaker and those working outside the home. Traditional Extension program delivery systems are not reaching these growing clientele groups.

More research needs to be done to document the positive influence of Extension Home Economics Programs on the growth and development of families. Justification of programs constantly becomes more crucial and measurement of program outcomes are needed to communicate this positive influence to decision-makers. Attributing leadership abilities or the positive development of a human being to

Extension programs is difficult without measurements. Pre and post-test methodology might be one process that would reveal this influence. Comparison to other groups might also provide a basis on which skills may be attributable to Extension programs.

More research is needed to document the effects of Extension programs. A broadened research base may be the key to keeping effective programs and to opening the doors for expanding Extension programs in the future.



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## APPENDIX A

### Extension Homemaker Study Group Member Participation Survey

Lyon County  
January, 1983

Extension Homemaker Study Group  
Member Participation Survey  
(No Name Necessary)

Personal Data

1. I have been a member of an Extension Homemaker Study Group:

- A. \_\_\_\_\_ 5 years or less.
- B. \_\_\_\_\_ 6-10 years.
- C. \_\_\_\_\_ 11 years or more.

2. I am:

- A. \_\_\_\_\_ 30 years old or younger.
- B. \_\_\_\_\_ 31 to 50 years old.
- C. \_\_\_\_\_ 51 years old or older

3. I live:

- A. \_\_\_\_\_ on a farm.
- B. \_\_\_\_\_ in town.
- C. \_\_\_\_\_ in the country but not on a farm.

4. I have completed: (Check those that apply).

- A. \_\_\_\_\_ less than high school.
- B. \_\_\_\_\_ high school.
- C. \_\_\_\_\_ vocational/technical school.
- D. \_\_\_\_\_ some college coursework.
- E. \_\_\_\_\_ an undergraduate college degree.
- F. \_\_\_\_\_ a graduate college degree.

5. I have:

- A. \_\_\_\_\_ children who are still living at home and/or  
who have left home.
- B. \_\_\_\_\_ no children.

6. Presently, I am:

- A. \_\_\_\_\_ employed outside the home.
- B. \_\_\_\_\_ not employed outside the home.

PLEASE CONTINUE TO THE NEXT PAGE

For the last five years, record the number of times you have been involved in the Extension Homemaker Study Group as a:

- \_\_\_\_\_ A. Leader for a Leader Training Program.
- \_\_\_\_\_ B. Home Councilor.
- \_\_\_\_\_ C. Home Council Officer.
- \_\_\_\_\_ D. Homemaker Group Officer.
- \_\_\_\_\_ E. Homemaker Group Member who helped form another homemaker group.
- \_\_\_\_\_ F. Volunteer for a Home Council responsibility.
- \_\_\_\_\_ G. Volunteer for a Homemaker Group responsibility.
- \_\_\_\_\_ H. Volunteer to do a program (based on your expertise) in your homemaker group.
- \_\_\_\_\_ I. Volunteer who shared a homemaker group program with a non-homemaker group.

-----

- \_\_\_\_\_ J. Home Council Committee Member.
- \_\_\_\_\_ K. Homemaker Group Committee Member.
- \_\_\_\_\_ L. Contributor to Home Council Program Planning ideas.
- \_\_\_\_\_ M. Contributor to Homemaker Group Program Planning Ideas.
- \_\_\_\_\_ N. Contributor to the Homemakers' Newsletter.
- \_\_\_\_\_ O. Home Council Discussion Group Leader.
- \_\_\_\_\_ P. Homemaker Group Discussion Group Leader.
- \_\_\_\_\_ Q. Homemaker Group Member who encouraged others to join a homemaker group.

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PLEASE CONTINUE TO NEXT PAGE

- \_\_\_\_\_ R. Home Council Helper i.e. Distribute flyers, work on arrange., etc.
- \_\_\_\_\_ S. Homemaker Group Helper i.e. Distribute flyers, work on arrange., etc.
- \_\_\_\_\_ T. Home Councilor who shared an idea with other Councilors.
- \_\_\_\_\_ U. Participant at 1980 and/or 1981 "Be...Coming" Programs.
- \_\_\_\_\_ V. Participant SSU "Day for Rural Women" Programs.

THANK YOU!